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ABSTRACT

This document, which provides an overview of current educational policy and planning issues in Europe, was prepared prior to a UNESCO international congress on the planning and management of educational development. It is composed of five sections: (1) major economic, political, and social developments; (2) educational developments; (3) educational management; (4) educational planning; and (5) future prospects for educational planning and management in Europe. A lengthy bibliography, list of acronyms, and a number of tables also appear in this report. (DB)

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REGIONAL STUDY

REVIEW AND PROSPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT IN EUROPE

I. FAGERLIND - B. SJÖSTEDT

MEXICO
26-30 MARCH 1990

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EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT IN EUROPE

REVIEW AND PROSPECTS

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December 1989

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FOREWORD

At the time this report was written, major changes were taking place in the European region. The wall in Berlin suddenly became a historical monument, which reflected the far-reaching political changes which were occurring.

While these changes entail a range of possibilities, they are also conducive to uncertainty and an open-ended development in all spheres of society. In this context, we have chosen to focus on a set of tendencies, rather than attempting to describe the situation in management and planning by country. As it is possible to discern some general trends, we have found this approach the most fruitful, and we hope that the examples we provide to illustrate these trends will shed some light on the overall directions of education in the European region.

Stockholm, December 1989

Ingemar Fägerlind Britt Sjöstedt

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General Introduction

At the beginning of the 1990's, the European region is involved in a revitalization process. Within the Common Market, cross-fertilization programs in research and education have already yielded results, and more co-operation, not only across borders, but also across institutions and academic disciplines are planned. In Eastern Europe, pronounced redefinitions of traditional policies and values are not only changing the political structure, but also forcing the educational systems to profound changes. Institutions of higher education and research actively look for cooperation with institutions in Western Europe while government programmes to improve the quality of education, to change and modernize the curricula, and to promote creative thinking, are worked out.

New developments in information technology, including computer-aided learning, interactive video, video and television, all offer important opportunities to improve the quality of learning. The new technologies pose enduring challenges for educational planning, and curriculum planners have to address the question of what understanding and habits of mind are essential for all citizens in a scientifically literate society.

New modes of organization of work are rapidly spreading, which demand more independence and self-motivation of the workers. In such a situation, it seems doubtful whether any curriculum reform by itself will help to improve the output of the schools without a fundamental change in the social environment, in which learning takes place. Educational institutions may need to rethink the way in which they are structured. The new information technologies may force educational planners to consider alternative organizational models for education.

Due to the falling birth-rates, young people will be a scarce commodity in the 1990's in most European countries. With this prospect, schools and training systems have to bring up the qualification level of a greater proportion of an age group, in order to help production retain its competitive capacity. One solution is to raise the school leaving age, another might be to bring the worlds of schooling and work closer together. Life-long education will undoubtedly play a more important role in the future in all European countries. Continuing education, as well as higher education, will in many cases take place in more specialized learning environments.

Increasing mobility within the continent entails new requirements for the learning of foreign languages. Mastering one other language than the native language will be essential. Besides, through the increasing interchange in the field of education and in working life, a wider cultural perspective will be brought into education and work. The multicultural and multilingual dimensions will be increasingly prominent features in education in future Europe, which calls for skills in communication across cultures, as well as the exertion of tolerance and openness.

Part 1. Major Economic, Political and Social Developments

1. Economic and Political Developments

In the past two decades the European economies have been characterized by shifts between on the one hand economic recovery and progress, and on the other hand stagnation. As a result of two oil-price chocks in the 1970's, economic recovery was halted, at the same time as inflation and budget deficits continued to be high, except for a decrease of the inflation in the mid-eighties. In the 1980's, most Western European countries have experienced an accumulation of the public debt, and several governments have considered it necessary to adopt fiscal policies which would be help stabilize or reduce the ratio of debt of the GNP. Although some degree of reduction of the public debt has been achieved for example in the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG), soaring public debt and the associated interest changes still pose a threat to the economy in Belgium, Ireland, the Netherlands, and Greece (OECD, 1989a). The generally high interest rates and the unstable foreign exchange market have been conducive to a relatively slow economic growth in the major part of the decade (See Table I).

A decisive orientation within the Western European economies during the 1980's, has been the increasing cross-national cooperation. It has been seen as a viable strategy to meet tightening international competition not only in the economic field, but also in the fields of technology and science. An integrated market, as opposed to a fragmented ones, is seen to have vastly better chances in international competition in the field of science and technology, not least in view of the possibilities of making the efforts and innovations commercially

more profitable on an expanded market. This orientation has necessitated various degrees of economic adjustment and structural reform within the countries, and in the case of the European Community, trade liberalization policies, removal of subsidies to domestic producers, and a degree of monetary cooperation have been discussed and developed (Laurent, 1987).

Table I: Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for Western European OECD Countries, 1981-1987.
(At purchasing power parities, PPP's)

	1981	1983	1985	1987
Austria	8 842	10 010	11 345	11 664
Belgium	9 651	10 690	12 150	11 802
Denmark	11 350	11 538	13 311	13 329
Finland	10 238	10 220	12 217	12 838
France	10 552	11 276	12 643	12 803
Germany, Fed. Rep.	11 076	11 447	13 265	13 323
Greece	3 769	5 512	6 296	6 363
Iceland	12 791	..	..	15 508
Ireland	4 855	6 740	7 795	7 541
Italy	6 123	8 711	10 093	12 254
Luxembourg	10 566	11 381	14 385	14 705
Netherlands	9 861	10 247	11 710	12 252
Norway	13 937	12 999	15 367	15 405
Portugal	2 398	4 549	5 021	6 297
Spain	4 938	6 977	8 279	8 681
Sweden	13 505	..	..	13 771
Switzerland	14 778	..	..	15 842
Turkey	1 262	..	..	4 247
United Kingdom	8 886	9 802	11 068	12 340
United States	12 647	13 969	15 356	18 338
Canada	11 741	13 803	15 198	17 211

Source: **OECD Economic Surveys.**

The EUREKA project (the European Research Coordination Agency) is one of the large-scale cooperative ventures within Western Europe which has been designed to meet the increasing global competition in the area of science and technology, where progress is extremely rapid. The countries of the European Community, the Scandinavian countries, Switzerland, Austria, Turkey and Iceland have agreed to cooperate in a high-technology project, which produces high technology (IT), biotechnology and computer science goods and services. Projects of this kind will have additional implications; they will, for example, be likely to affect the scientific and technological dependency on others, to some degree enable Europe to prevent its brain-power from being siphoned off, and facilitate the coordination of efforts, so that duplication will be avoided.

Among the programmes within the area of technological modernization, the most significant is **ESPRIT**, the European Strategic Programme of Research in Information Technology, which begun in 1982-1883, however. **ESPRIT** was intended to group universities, research institutes and computer companies in alliance primarily for research and development, as well as for applications for marketing, as the economic viability of these projects has become of increasing importance. The rapid scientific progress, and the development in the field of information technology (IT) has had considerable structural implications for Western Europe. Production has, for example, increasingly moved away from manufacturing which absorbs large numbers of unskilled workers, to capital-intensive, technologically advanced production that requires highly skilled labor at all levels, while large parts of the manufacturing industries have been transferred to other regions of the world, with relatively low labor costs (Levin and Rumberger, 1989). Thus, a new division of labor is emerging within Europe, with a diminishing demand for unskilled workers, and this development has considerable implications for education, retraining opportunities, and unemployment.

Unemployment rose dramatically in Western Europe in the past decades, and most countries experienced a continued rise in unemployment in the 1980's (See Table II below). In 1987, 16 million people were without employment, of which approximately 40 per cent was accounted for by young people, whose skills were inadequate for participation on a changing labor market. The widespread youth unemployment induced several Western European governments to launch large-scale retraining schemes and vocational programmes in the 1980's, which were particularly directed to school-leavers and other groups who were severely hit by unemployment. The relative surplus of young people available for employment in most European countries will, however, shift to a deficit in the 1990's, which we discuss further below.

In the Eastern European countries the 1980's has been a period of incipient large-scale economic reforms. Particularly at the closing years of this decade, reforms have been attempted in response to slowing economic growth, hard currency debt, inefficient and sometimes inadequate production (Gajdeczka, 1988). The intensity and direction of the economic reforms vary between countries, but common to most Eastern European countries has been an orientation towards economic cooperation with other countries, both with countries of the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA), and with the West. In the U.S.S.R., for example, several government departments have been merged to form one Ministry of external economic relations, in order to promote trade and participation in international economics. More than 60 joint ventures with foreign counterparts were in function in 1988, and more are scheduled to be launched (Skorov, 1988).

Table II: Unemployment Rates in European OECD Countries, 1981-1988.

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
Austria	2.1	3.1	3.7	3.8	3.6	3.1	3.8	3.5
Belgium	10.0	11.7	12.9	13.0	12.0	11.3	11.1	10.0
Denmark	9.2	9.8	10.4	10.1	9.0	7.8	7.8	8.6
Finland	4.9	5.4	5.4	5.2	5.1	5.4	5.1	4.5
France	7.6	8.2	8.4	9.9	10.2	10.4	10.5	10.1
Greece	4.0	5.8	7.9	8.1	7.8	7.4	7.4	7.6
Germany, Fed. Rep	4.6	6.7	8.2	8.2	8.3	7.9	7.9	7.9
Iceland	0.4	0.7	1.0	1.3	0.9	0.6	0.5	1.0
Ireland	9.9	11.4	14.0	15.5	17.4	17.4	17.5	16.7
Italy	7.9	8.5	9.2	9.3	9.3	10.3	11.0	11 0
Luxembourg	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.4
Netherlands	9.2	12.4	15.0	15.4	14.2	13.2	8.7	8.3
Norway	2.0	2.7	3.4	3.2	2.6	2.0	2.1	3.2
Portugal	7.7	7.5	7.9	8.6	8.7	8.6	7.1	5.6
Spain	14.3	16.4	18.2	20.1	21.5	21.0	20.5	19.5
Sweden	2.1	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.4	2.2	1.9	1.6
Switzerland	0.2	0.4	0.8	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
Turkey	15.2	15.6	16.1	16.1	16.3	15.8	15.2	15.9
United Kingdom	9.1	10.4	11.2	11.4	11.6	11.7	10.2	8.2
United States	7.6	9.7	9.6	7.5	7.2	7.0	6.2	5.5
Canada	7.6	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.6	8.9	7.8

Source: OECD, 1989 b.

The possibility of an Eastern European counterpart to the Western European Community's single market has been a topic for discussion, although diverse attitudes are voiced in different Eastern European countries in this context. National price reforms, changes in exchange rates and the convertibility of the transfer roubles as preconditions for integration, are among the measures that have been discussed. Although in the medium term, there seems to be little likelihood of a formation of a large scale common CMEA market (Höhmann, 1989), various projects for cooperation on a less comprehensive scale are in progress, for example endeavors to develop new forms and methods of economic cooperation, and a CMEA program for the promotion of scientific and technological progress up to the year 2000. An active search for cooperation with the large international financial institutes, such as the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) has also been undertaken by various Eastern European countries.

Table III: Employment by Sector 1979-1988

	Agriculture		Industry		Service	
	1960	1987	1960	1987	1960	1987
Austria	11	7	49	33	40	60
Belgium	6	2	41	31	53	67
Bulgaria	32	..	53	..	15	..
Czechoslovakia	16	..	73	..	11	..
Denmark	11	5	32	29	57	66
Finland	18	8	35	35	47	58
France	10	3	38	31	52	66
Germany, Fed. Rep	6	2	53	38	41	60
Germany, Dem. Rep	..	..	..	..	..	..
Greece	23	15	26	29	51	56
Hungary	24	16	69	40	7	44
Iceland	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ireland	22	10	26	37	52	53
Italy	13	5	41	34	46	61
Luxembourg	..	..	..	..	..	..
Netherlands	9	4	46	30	45	66
Norway	9	3	33	35	58	62
Poland	16	..	57	..	17	..
Portugal	25	9	36	40	39	51
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	..
Spain	21	6	39	37	40	57
Sweden	7	3	40	35	53	62
Switzerland	..	..	..	..	..	..
Turkey	61	18	1	36	38	46
United Kingdom	4	2	43	38	53	60
U.S.S.R.	21	..	62	..	17	..
United States	4	2	38	30	58	68
Yogoslavia	24	13	45	43	31	45
Canada	6	3	34	35	60	62

Source: World Bank, **World Development Report**, 1980 and 1989

The Changing Structure of Production

There has been an overall decline of employment in the industrial sector in Europe in the past decades, and the development continues in the 1980's. The losses of industrial employment have affected both high-wage and low-wage branches. Between 1982 and 1987, there was a sharp decrease in employment in the high-tech sectors of mining, basic metals, fabricated metal products, machinery and equipment, as well as in the sectors of textiles, clothing and leather industries and constructions (OECD, 1989 a). In some countries with heavily concentrated industrial areas, for example the United Kingdom,

the Federal Republic of Germany and France, this development has created its own problem. While the industrial regions experience increasing rates of unemployment, the regions with strong service sectors prosper, and a somewhat growing sense of division between the regions has emerged (**Newsweek**, 1985). The multitude of technological innovations in the recent decade, not least within the field of information technology, have furthermore made it possible to reduce the work-force at the same time as the level of output is maintained, or even increased. The trend is expected to continue, and the actual new jobs created will basically be found in the service sector.

While the industrial sector has experienced sharp decline, there has been an overall growth of the service sector. (See Table III.) In some countries, for example France, Finland, Norway and Sweden, this increase is primarily accounted for by an expansion concentrated to the public sector, whereas in the United Kingdom, and Italy, the growth is accounted for by a substantial rise in self-employment, for example in the areas of insurance, real estate, business services and finance, as well as in hotels and restaurants. The productivity in this sector is expected to increase in the coming years as a result of the extensive use if information processing (OECD, 1989 b).

Politically, the last few years of the 1980's has been a period of general thaw in relations between countries. Attempts at demilitarization have, for example, been initiated in recent years and numerous visits of political leaders have taken place. A sense of coming closer together has evolved, which has gained expression, for example, in the activities of the European Community, the Council of Europe, OECD, EFTA, and the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA). Concrete steps have been taken in the direction of greater openness between Eastern and Western Europe. Several issues of cross-national importance, such as concern for the environment and security has increased the awareness of shared interests that transcend linguistic and political barriers.

Implications of *Perestroika* and a new thinking in the U.S.S.R.

The Soviet *perestroika* has since the mid 1980's had considerable impact on Soviet society, as well as on the orientations of Eastern Europe. Traditional policies and values of the socialist countries in Eastern Europe have been held up for discussion and redefinition, and considerable structural changes have taken place both within the Soviet Union and in Eastern Europe. *Perestroika* admonishes an increasingly international orientation of Soviet society. Cooperative programs with other Member-States of the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance have been initiated, and the U.S.S.R. has

expressed the hope of a future cooperative involvement in the activities of the Council of Europe. Contacts with other states have also been intitiated in the field of culture and education. Education is one of the corner stones in the theory and policy of the current *Perestroika* efforts, and comprehensive reform of the curricula and a ideological re-orientation of the educational system towards democratization, humanization and pluralism have been advocated.

The responses to *perestrioka* in the Eastern European countries necessarily vary with different social systems and different political cultures, and *Perestrioka* can not be seen as a transferrable model for change and solution of problems. Besides, in view of the recent shifts and profound changes taking place in Eastern Europe, in which many Eastern European countries are currently pursuing nationally specific directions of development, we can not with accuracy relate the development to an impetus given by Soviet *Perestroika*.

"The European Home" - the Council of Europe

In the recent willingness of the U.S.S.R to open up for cooperation with Western Europe, there has been frequent mention of the "European Home". This reflects the increasing attention given to Europe by the U.S.S.R., and alludes to the historical and cultural common interests of the U.S.S.R. and Europe, across the political blocs (Jonson, 1989). There has been a growing interest in participating in the activities of the Council of Europe and in certain activities of the European Community. Frequent visits and exchanges between Moscow and the European capitals have taken place in recent years, and at the beginning of 1988, a new research institute was founded in the Soviet Academy of Science, which will focus entirely on Europe, to a beginning particularly on Western Europe.

A Soviet cooperation with the Council of Europe in the form of a common "European House" may be seen as a Soviet hope for an alternative to a purely Western European cooperative body, particularly as materialized in the plans for a Common Market, as it would be undesirable for the U.S.S.R to be closed out of the economic and technological progress of such a cooperation.

2. Social and Cultural Developments

The social and cultural developments in Europe in recent years are closely linked to the overall economic development, and the political climate. Most European countries belong to the high-income countries of the world, and could be characterized

as welfare societies that adhere to ideals of equity and equality. In a process of integration of the European countries and a simultaneous internationalization of the markets and trade, efficiency and profitability have gained importance in most European countries. Due to this, however, many countries find themselves in a dilemma of, on the one hand, political objectives of equal distribution of welfare, and an equitable salary-scale, and on the other hand the need to give impetus for enhanced productivity by means of various economic incentives. Conflicts which have important social implications have thus emerged, and need to be resolved. In the U.S.S.R., for example, one of the dilemmas confronting the reform policies is how to reconcile the growing demand for efficiency, with the socialist ideals of equality. How can an agenda of reform be pursued, in which inefficient enterprises are closed, and wage incentives are offered, at the same time as full employment and relative equalities of incomes are maintained (Lampe, 1989)?

In Western Europe, private consumption has risen in the 1980's, while it remains at a relatively lower level in Eastern Europe. An important change that has evolved over the past years, however, is a growing demand for Western produced goods in the Eastern European countries. With the influence of mass media and a gradual opening up of the borders, Western consumption patterns and life styles have been introduced to the Eastern European countries. The affluence of Western Europe exerts considerable attraction, and this poses serious dilemmas to the attempts at revitalization of the domestic markets, as well as to political reform. The process of making the indigenous market more efficient may be hindered, as the demand for western goods may provoke a recourse to import from Western Europe (Lampe, 1988). Socially, the attraction of Western European consumption patterns and life styles, which sometimes stand in stark contrast to the indigenous social and political context, has particularly among the young created a growing sense of dissatisfaction.

The influence of international mass media has been considerable on the social and cultural developments in both Eastern and Western Europe. A standardized culture reaches a wide range of people, and youth subcultures of Eastern and Western Europe are beginning to be increasingly similar. The wide dissemination of media has also been conducive to a growing sense of being European. The idea of a shared Central Europe has regained expression, although these sentiments are very different from some of the nationalistic currents of earlier decades (Croan, 1989). Although each country has its own social and cultural characteristics, a sense of European unity and a shared culture has emerged. Mobility between countries has been facilitated by exchange programs between schools, universities and work places, and recently also by opening borders between Eastern and Western Europe, and the discovery has been made that

there is historically, socially and culturally more that unites the European countries than that separates them.

Immigration and Refugees

Major changes of the characteristics of migration in Europe have occurred in recent years. First, the composition of the immigration flows to Western Europe have changed. The 1960's and 1970's labor force immigration from southern Europe to the major immigrant countries of central and northern Europe has slowed off considerably, as the economic gap between the north and south is diminishing. The share of southern Europeans in the total inflow of immigrants to the traditional immigrant countries of central and northern Europe was estimated at 39 per cent in the period of 1970 - 1974, 30 per cent in the period of 1975 - 1979 , and 25 per cent in the period of 1980 - 1983. In Germany, for example, this decline meant that immigration from southern Europe accounted for 59 per cent of the total immigration in 1980, but only for 32 per cent in 1984 (**Migration News**, 1989). In the peak years of the 1960's, the figure for the outflow from the major emigration countries of southern Europe reached almost 1 million annually, while the figure had dropped to approximately 0.1 million in 1984, and it continues to drop.

Second, the proportion of asylum-seekers is increasing, and in 1985 the numbers of asylum-seekers exceeded that of workers admitted for example in France, Germany and Switzerland. In the same year, the number amounted to some 150.000 for the immigration countries in Western Europe taken together (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom), which was a change from a total of 90.000 the year before, and 54.000 in 1983 (**Migration News**, 1989). The waves of asylum-seekers primarily come from Asia and Africa, with flows from Latin America diminishing since several countries have turned democracies.

As to the estimated annual inflow of immigrants in general, the average for Western Europe in the last years of the 1980's surpasses that of other classical immigrant countries:

Table IV:

Intake of registered immigrants (annual average)

Western Europe	USA	Canada	Australia	New Zeeland
850.000	600.000	100.00	150.000	40.000

Source: **Migration News**, 1989

The waves of migration within Europe and the increasingly large waves of refugees entering Europe have reinforced cooperation between the European countries. More and more migration is expected to take place within the European Community, and there will be a continuing need for cooperation in order to combat clandestine migration as well as to coordinate refugee policies. As to the migration within Europe, an interesting kind of integration of countries have taken place in recent years that has its origin at the individual level. The family reunion process of the 1960's and 1970's migrant workers have generally been facilitated by legislation in the 1980's, and with time the migrant worker has become more assimilated and more firmly rooted in the immigrant country. At the same time loyalties with the country of origin are often maintained, and in many cases there is even a degree of dual residence. Thus, with loyalties and relations extended to two countries, a long-term commuting is taking place, and this process of integration at the individual level will surely have positive implications for political integration between countries (**Migration News**, 1989).

The influx of immigrants and refugees has both structural implications for the receiving countries, and implications for European cross-national relations. As to the immigrant countries, many problems of the 1970's persist as regards the position of the immigrants. There has been some shift out of unskilled manufacturing jobs to service occupations (not least for immigrant women), but the general concentration in the industrial sector remains in the 1980's. Immigrants also tend to continue to be over-represented among the unemployed. The progress has been relatively slow as regards the participation among immigrants in vocational training. In Germany, 7 per cent of the foreign male population participated in vocational training in 1968, while the percentage in 1985 was 12 per cent. For women, the figure had not changed significantly.

In the case of immigrant youth, the degree of participation in vocational training programmes is considerably higher, and the prospects for employment after the completion of the vocational programmes are relatively bright. In Sweden, Germany and France, for example, vocational programmes especially geared to immigrants were launched in the early 80's. Of those completing the MBSE courses in Germany (Massnahmen zur Berufsvorbereitung und Sozialen Eingliederung), 35 per cent got employment, and 15 per cent got apprenticeships, according to the Bundesanstalt für Arbeit. However, the high enrolment figures for immigrant youth in vocational programs indicate over-representation among immigrants in short-cycle education at the expense of higher education after compulsory schooling ends, and immigrant children still record higher rates of school failure, or drop out, than the nationals (**Migration News**, 1989).

The overall proportion of foreign children in the schools will continue to be high in the immigrant countries of Europe. Family migration and reunions have an important impact on education, which makes efforts at a multi-cultural education fundamental. A number of countries have introduced instruction in the native tongue, but educational practices to meet the needs of immigrant children vary widely between countries. Confining multiculturalism to a separate subject, which is added on to a full course of study has not generally been seen as a successful approach. There is rather a need for an overall permeation of multiculturalism in education (Arora, 1986), which ultimately depend for its success on the general political climate, and on measures that might affect the school organization as such (Weiss, von Recum, Döring 1989). The policies addressed to multiculturalism in different countries are still in a state of change; several ideological and social obstacles remain to be solved, and it is difficult to predict the general direction of the development. The pressure will increase on policy makers to take appropriate action, however, as relatively higher fertility rates among minority groups will be conducive to an increasing proportion of cultural and linguistic minority children in schools (**Migration News**, 1989).

Table V

Foreign School Enrolment in Selected Countries, 1982-1983 (in per cent)

Level of Education	Belgium*	France	Germany*	Luxembourg	Netherlands	Switzerland*
Pre-primary	13.0	9.8	17.5	37.0	5.9	20.1
Primary	13.5	10.1	11.9	38.0	4.8	18.0
Secondary	9.9	6.4	3.8	19.3	2.3	12.8

* = 1981-1982
Source: OECD, 1987, in Weiss, von Recum, Döring, 1989

Table VI

Trends in the Population of Foreign Children in School Populations from the 1974-1975 School Year to 1982-1983 in Selected Countries. (in per cent)

	Nationals	Foreigners
Belgium	-9.6	+20.6
France	-3.1	+13.5
Germany	-9.4	+95.3
Luxembourg	-17.7	+22.2
Netherlands	-5.9	+67.5
Switzerland	-3.6	-0.4

Source: **Migration News**, 1989

Demographic Developments

Two major demographic developments can be observed for the recent decades, both of which are certain to have wide implications for the future. To begin with, there is a relative decrease in the population in Europe. It is estimated that by the year 2000, the population of industrialized Europe will have been brought down to 3 per cent of the total population of the world, as compared to 6 per cent today. In an OECD study from 1986, the following prognosis was made for the growth of the working-age population in Europe, as compared to other continents:

Table VII:

Growth of Working-Age Population by Region 1960-1990

	Annual rate of growth (per cent)		Annual increase (thousands)	
	1960-70	1985-1990	1960-70	1985-90
Western Europe	0.7	0.1	610	100
Southern Europe	0.7	0.6	520	580
North America	1.1	0.7	2,180	1,260
Less Developed Countries	2.9	2.7	29,000	60,000

Source: **Migration News**, 1989

The parallel development is a continued ageing of the population. At present, there are only two European countries where more than 15 per cent of the population is older than 65 (Sweden and Germany), but by the year 2000, seven other European countries will experience the same situation. Only Turkey and Ireland will have less than one tenth of the population in the old ages, according to demographic projections. The development corresponds to the falling birth rates of the late 1960's and 1970's, and it will have considerable implications for education as well as for working life in Europe. Quite rightly, it has been called a "demographic time-bomb" (**Employment Gazette**, 1989a). In the case of Sweden, for example, projections for the relation between the age groups of 20-24 years and 55-59 years at the turn of the century, show that the number of middle age people will exceed the number of young people. Figure 1 below illustrates our point.

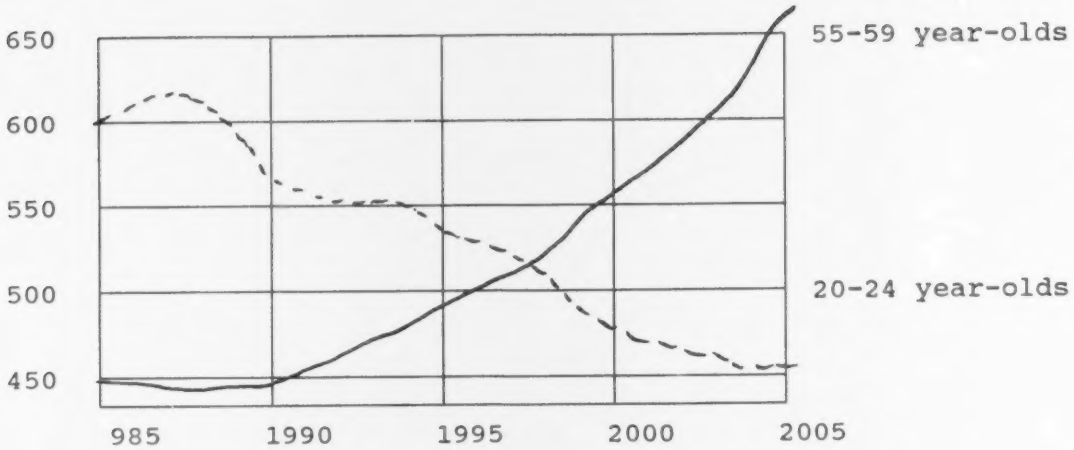

Figure 1.
Number of people in the age-groups 20-24, and 55-59 in the period 1985-2005. (thousands)

Source: Ohlsson and Broomé: **Ålderschocken**, 1988.

For the young school leavers and graduates this situation means that competition for employment will not be as severe as at a time when the age cohort is large. They are able to take up a working career at a relatively early age, and there will be less need for university or college education. Private companies and organizations, on the other hand, will have to compete for the recruitment of young employees, and all these factors have important implications for education.

To begin with, the role and function of the traditional educational system will increasingly be challenged. Many of the structures, concepts, norms and principles, which have been established in periods of educational expansion, will be questioned, as the birth rates decline. In a situation of scarcity of young people, companies might also recruit very young people and provide them with training opportunities within the company. Selection of capable students who are willing to stay in the company thus becomes vital for the competitiveness of the companies, which are also likely to require a greater degree of influence in defining the contents and organization of the vocational courses in secondary schools (Ohlsson, 1986 and Ohlsson and Broomé, 1988). Second, with a decline in the absolute number of pupils and students, nations can no longer afford the same number of school failures as up to today (Neave, 1989). The quality of education will thus be a fundamental issue for educational planners.

Coombs (1983) remarks that the decline in the number of students could provide education with a chance to "catch its breath and change its focus from quantitative expansion to qualitative improvement" (p.13). At the same time, the problem of planning education in the context of falling enrollments rates and declining birth rates, has for most countries proved a problem (Coombs, 1983). Even if the pupil-teacher ratios are lower in a context of smaller age cohorts, which may have positive effects on the quality of education, the educational systems do not adapt automatically. Some policy intervention is necessary and substantial structural and organizational changes may need to be considered. The process of adapting education to falling enrolment numbers and a changing age structure, calls for close considerations of the problems at all levels of educational management, as the effect on the different levels of education will vary. For example, the number of young people demanding post-compulsory education may decline, since this will no longer be an absolute necessity for jobs where it is required today (Ohlson and Broomé, 1988), while the demand for further education for retraining purposes among people who are already employed, but who need to meet changing requirements on the labor market, may at the same time increase.

In many European countries, further education and retraining may thus be the only educational sector experiencing a long-term expansion, in contrast to other sectors (Weiss, von Recum, Döring, 1989). The decrease in the number of young people, and the expected concomitant declining demand for higher education within the traditional school system, in conjunction with the increasing need to update skills among those already employed, also entails that participants in further education will be older than today (Weishaupt, Weiss, Von Recum, Haug, 1989).

Female Participation in Working Life

In most Western European countries there is an overall rise in the level of women's labor force participation, while the male participation has remained constant or even diminished. In some countries, the rise in women's work force participation is largely accounted for by the increasing number of women in part-time employment. This is, for example, the case in the United Kingdom and Denmark, where both levels of actual participation, and levels of part-time employment are high. In 1985, 44 per cent of the women held part-time jobs in Denmark, and 45 per cent in the United Kingdom, according to European Community Labor Force Surveys. Thus, the overall tendency is that the gap between women's participation and men's work force participation is gradually closing (**Employment Gazette**, 1989b). If we look at OECD statistics for Women's labor force participation up to 1988, we can observe an overall increase in the female participation.

Table VIII: Female Labor force participation rates, 1983-1988

	1983	1986	1987	1988
Austria	49.7	51.7	53.1	53.7
Belgium	49.8	51.3	52.0	..
Denmark	74.2	76.5	75.9	..
Finland	72.7	73.5	72.9	72.8
France	54.4	55.2	55.7	55.7
Germany	49.7	51.3	51.9	52.3
Greece	40.4	41.6	41.7	..
Ireland	37.8	37.2	38.5	..
Italy	40.3	42.3	43.4	44.2
Luxembourg	41.7	44.3	..	..
Netherlands	40.3	41.3	41.9	..
Norway	65.5	71.0	72.3	72.9
Portugal	60.1	56.2	57.4	59.1
Spain	33.0	34.1	37.5	39.4
Sweden	76.6	78.3	79.4	80.3
Switzerland	53.3	53.9	54.6	..
United Kingdom	57.2	61.6	62.6	63.7
United States	61.8	64.9	66.0	66.8
Canada	60.3	64.0	65.4	66.9

Source: OECD, 1989.

In projections for the year 2000, the tendency for female participation on the labor market to increase is even more pronounced. For example, in Great Britain the increase in the work force up to the year 2000 is almost entirely accounted for by women, who will make up 44 per cent of the work force, according to estimates made by the British Department of Employment. The rate of the female working population as a whole in Great Britain will only be 13 percentage points below the male rate, which may be compared to 18 in 1988, and 30 percentage points in 1971 (**Employment Gazette**, 1989a). In the Eastern European countries, the rates of female participation remain high in all sectors of the economy, with a marked increase in the service sector over the last two decades. In 1980, the overall female employment rate was 48 per cent, which was considerably higher than the average rates for the industrialized market economies (Fägerlind and Saha, 1989).

Changing Values

There is a general orientation towards increasing individualism, as well as a pluralism of life styles in most of the Western European countries. This naturally makes any overall

description hazardous, but we may discern certain trends, which have important implications for education. First, the growing female participation on the labor market, which we describe above, has created new demands on the education and supervision of the children in school, and the role of men in the family has changed. Second, there has been a diversification of family patterns, with a large proportion of single parent families, and a decline in the number of marriages. In 1985, the lowest rates of marriage were accounted for by Sweden and Spain, with 4.4 and 4.8 per thousand people, respectively. At the same time divorce-rates have been high, with Great Britain, Denmark, Sweden, the Netherlands, and the Federal Republic of Germany recording the highest rates (Weiss, von Recum, Döring, 1989). The traditional nuclear family can thus no longer safely be taken to represent the norm and referent, and this diversification of family patterns must be responded to by the schools, which need to recognize a plurality of referents, as well as provide more individualized teaching methods and learning objectives (Weiss, von Recum, Döring, 1989).

The value changes also concern aspirations for education. Individual demands for education have become more differentiated, there is greater awareness of equality in education, and generally more importance assigned to education. Parents voice higher educational aspirations for their children, at the same time as students today demand more influence on the course contents, freedom of choice, and show greater concern for quality (Weiss, von Recum, Döring, 1989). The retained dominant position of traditional education vis-à-vis private alternatives will largely depend very much on how well it manages to meet the preferences of parents and students (Coombs, 1983).

Part II. Educational Developments

3. Compulsory Education

In most Western European countries, the length of compulsory education is around nine years (See Table IX below.). The nine years of compulsory schooling are not seen as a sufficient length for preparation for adult life and working-life participation, however, particularly not in a context of rapid technological development and changing requirements on the labor market. Enabling pupils to go on learning, and providing them with the skills and motivation for continuing learning has thus gained importance. A central body of knowledge, and basic cognitive skills have again come to be seen as essential to compulsory education, which is a change away from the overall socialization perspective of the 1970's (Jallade, 1989). An additional range of optional subjects can be made available according to the preferences and abilities of the individual child.

There is a shift away from the focus only on enrolment figures, in favor of a pronounced emphasis on quality. In particular, there is a growing concern for the low-achievers and the drop-outs, who leave school with no skills or qualifications relevant for the labor-market. Policies for compensation to the low-achievers have been adopted, a range of methods have been devised to combat the problem of school-failure, and the general orientation is towards a greater degree of intervention to actively support disadvantaged children (Jallade, 1989).

The expected increasing challenge to traditional education from private enterprises will, primarily affect the higher levels of education. Compulsory education is likely to retain its dominance in relation to alternative opportunities for learning. It will, however, have to accommodate its methods and quality to adjust to the changing context that has evolved in response to the scientific and technological development. The demands for an overall knowledge of, for example, information processing, have incited the increasing use of computer media in compulsory education. In view of the gap that threatens to emerge between those who do master the new information technology and those who do not, the ability to comprehend and produce information by means of the computer, and the gradual acquisition of "Computer Literacy" will be important objectives of compulsory education.

Table IX: Length of Compulsory and Secondary Education in Europe.

Country	Compulsory Education		Entrance Age and Duration of Primary Education	Entrance Age and Duration of Secondary Education
	Age Limits	Duration		
Albania	6-13	8	6-13	14-17
Andorra:				
French Schools	6-16	10	6-10	11-14 / 17*
Spanish Schools	6-15	10	6-10	11-13 / 17
Austria	6-15	9	6-9	10-13 / 17
Belgium	6-18	12	6-11	11-14 / 18
Bulgaria	7-14	8	7-14	15-17
Czechoslovakia	6-15	8	6-13	14-17
Denmark	7-15	9	7-12	13-15 / 18
Finland	7-16	9	7-12	13-15 / 18
France	6-16	10	6-10	11-14 / 17
German Democratic Republic	6-16	10	6-9	10-15
Germany, Federal Republic of	6-18	12	6-9	10-15 / 18
Gibraltar	4-15	12	4-11	12-15 / 17
Greece	6-15	9	6-11	12-15 / 17
Hungary	6-16	10	6-13	14-17
Iceland	7-15	8	7-12	13-15 / 19
Ireland	6-15	9	6-11	12-14 / 16
Italy	6-13	8	6-10	11-13 / 18
Liechtenstein	6-14	8	6-10	11-13 / 16
Luxembourg	6-15	9	6-11	12-14 / 18
Malta	5-16	10	5-10	11-15 / 17
Monaco	6-16	10	6-10	11-14 / 17
Netherlands	5-16	11	5-11	12-14 / 17
Norway	7-15	9	7-12	13-15 / 18
Poland	7-14	8	7-14	15-18
Portugal	6-14	6	6-11	12-14 / 17
Romania	6-16	10	6-13	14-17
San Marino	6-13	8	6-10	11-13 / 18
Spain	6-15	10	6-10	11-13 / 17
Sweden	7-16	9	7-12	13-15 / 18
Switzerland	7-16	8,9	7-12	13-15 / 19
United Kingdom	5-16	11	5-10	11-13 / 17
U.S.S.R.	7-17	10	7-11	12-14 / 16
Yugoslavia	7-15	8	7-10	11-14 / 18

Source: UNESCO, **Statistical Yearbook**, 1988

*) The higher age refers to leaving-age after upper secondary school.

Table X: Government spending on Education.
In per cent of GNP.

	1980	1986
Austria	5.6	6.0
Belgium	6.0	5.5
Bulgaria	5.6	7.1
Czechoslovakia	4.8	5.2
Denmark	6.9	7.7
Finland	5.5	5.9
France	5.1	6.1
Germany, Fed. Rep	4.7	4.6
Germany Dem. Rep	..	..
Greece	2.2	2.6
Hungary	4.7	5.7
Iceland	4.0	4.0
Ireland	6.6	6.7
Italy	4.4	4.0
Luxembourg	6.0	5.2
Netherlands	7.9	6.9
Norway	7.2	6.9
Poland	..	..
Portugal	4.4	4.4
Romania	3.3	2.1
Spain	2.6	3.2
Sweden	9.1	7.6
Switzerland	5.0	4.8
Turkey	3.4	2.1
United Kingdom	5.6	5.2
U.S.S.R.	7.3	7.0
Yugoslavia	4.7	3.8
United States	6.8	6.7
Canada	7.4	7.4

Public Spending on Education

In a general context of economic constraint, the growth of the allocations of resources for education has slowed off, and in many cases, the public expenditures for education have decreased over the last decades (See Table X). In this situation, improving the quality and efficiency of education within the limits of existing resources is of increasing concern. In Norway, for example, nearly all future policies aimed at improving education are directed at the qualitative standards (OECD, 1984). A finding that is often referred to in order to explain the limited increase, or in some cases decrease, in expenditure on education, is that educational research has pointed to the experience that financial expenditure seems to

have little or no impact on the actual outcome, although adequate financing remains a prerequisite to secure a satisfactory outcome. Locating a minimum spending requirement would be difficult, however (OECD, 1984).

The demographic development in Europe, which we have outlined above, will not automatically lead to relief in the public spending on education. Although there will be a shift in the structure of public expenditure, with a higher proportion spent on pensions, in a context of an ageing population, it will still be necessary to secure adequate resources for education. Unit costs are expected to increase, as the pupil-teacher ratio goes down, and as modern instructional facilities will be increasingly more expensive. There is also the possibility of an extended compulsory school, and a shift in the education sector to more expensive intermediate and grammar schools. There will also be continued high costs for areas that have not been given sufficient attention in earlier decades, such as provision for adequate education and sometimes compensatory programmes for immigrant children, handicapped children, school leavers, unemployed young people, and groups of people with little motivation for education (Weishaupt, von Recum, Haug, 1988).

Foreign Languages

Learning foreign languages is of increasing importance in an environment where mobility between the countries of Europe is increasingly common, and in a general environment of more international exchange and communication. In response to this, several European countries have introduced a foreign language at an early age in compulsory education. In Sweden and the Netherlands, for example, English is taught from the fourth grade onwards, while in many other countries, such as Germany, France and the United Kingdom, a foreign language is introduced at an early level on an experimenter basis. The smaller states, and the smaller linguistic groups tend to have a widespread concern for the teaching of foreign languages. Educational planners in the U.S.S.R. similarly voice the urgency for the teaching of foreign languages, in view of the planned expansion of involvement in cross-national cooperation and exchange.

Within Europe, at least one language apart from the native language needs to be mastered. In the late 1980's, a majority of the citizens of the European Community reported that their knowledge of a foreign language was not sufficient for a conversation in that language, according to a recent survey (Weiss, von Recum, Döring, 1989), and the European Community has made substantial funds available for the promotion of learning foreign languages. The LINGUA Programme, for example, with a duration of five years (1990-1994), has the aim of supporting measures by member states to improve language skills. The

efforts of the European Community to encourage language learning also focus on the teachers. In a 1983 Declaration the importance of the refreshing of the language knowledge is stressed, and the provision of in-service training abroad for language teachers is claimed as a priority.

4. Secondary Education

There is a general tendency towards comprehensivization of the secondary school, which is either materialized by merging various elements, or by making them more interchangeable. Most European school-systems have at least in principle gradually adopted a comprehensive school system for secondary education. From the first grade, children thus expect to pass through a sequence of school years, which he or she will go through without hindrance, at least to the end of compulsory schooling.

In some countries, attempts at generalization of the comprehensive secondary school have met with resistance, however. In France, opposition to the comprehensive secondary school was evident on the part of many teachers, which later could be overcome by entrusting teachers with influence on certain details in the shaping of the comprehensive school model. In Austria, attempted reforms met with similar resistance, or lack of cooperation, among a majority of the teachers. The results of an experimental phase in the 1970's were essentially positive, but the political ability to generalize the experience of those years was lacking, and the realization of a general comprehensivization failed in the 80's. In the Federal Republic of Germany, the attempts at making the secondary schools comprehensive were likewise introduced on a limited scale and on a trial basis. The intention was to evaluate the performance of the experimenter comprehensive schools over a period of time, to compare it with the existing conventional system, and with regard to the result of the comparison decide which type of school eventually to adopt (Weiler, 1989). The traditional three-tier structure was not replaced on a larger scale with a comprehensive *Gesamtschule*, however, and where comprehensive schools exist today, they do not constitute a structural replacement of the traditional selective system.

An increasing number of European countries have provided for a continuation of education after compulsory schooling, which has partly been a response to urgent need for retraining among those who have been unemployed, and a response to the needs of those who for different reasons have been unable to complete secondary education, and who come back to school for it after a period of work. Before there was provision for continued education, many students in Sweden, for example, left school once compulsory schooling was completed, at the age of 16.

The link between education and working life has also been of increasing concern in recent years. The relationship between schools and work has been seen as necessary in order to prepare students adequately for the changing skills-requirements and demands of working life. Students themselves are also increasingly more aware of the importance of viable education for a successful working career, although there is a range of competing opportunities for education available besides schools.

Vocational Education

The vocational alternative to the general route in upper secondary school is of growing importance in Western Europe. The provision of a vocational alternative within the schools is seen to have an important democratic value, as a diversity of routes de-emphasizes the primacy formerly given to cognitive achievement. The growing emphasis on vocational education is also a response to a constrained economy, and high unemployment rates. In all Western European countries, the objective is to provide all young people leaving compulsory education with a minimum of one year of vocational education and training, which is to be built upon further in on-the-job training. In the case of the Netherlands, the number of school leavers who gained a technical diploma increased by 80 per cent in the period of 1975 to 1985, and in France a *baccalaureate professionnel* has been introduced, which furnishes students with a complete professional course, at an equal level with general education.

The response to the needs of the economy and the subsequent form of vocational education and training vary between countries, and it generally reflects the tradition of the educational system of the country. In those countries with a long tradition of public education, prolonged school based education tends to be the prevalent response, as in the case of France, where an extension of the length of secondary education has been introduced. In the Federal Republic of Germany, private companies have, in contrast, had a considerable role in shaping, organizing and financing apprenticeships. The tendency in Western Europe to vocationalize the upper secondary school levels is contrary to the general tendency in the United States and Japan, where community colleges and private companies, respectively, are gradually gaining ground as the locus for vocational training.

The quality of vocational education is especially important in the context of an uncertain economic development and rapid change, which has been the general environment of the 1980's. Vocational education and training have to be flexible and adaptable in order to meet the changing demands for

specialization and professionalism on the labor market. In response to the changing technological and economic environment, a new set of qualities will increasingly have to be emphasized in technical and vocational education:

- The "transferability" of skills, which means that skills are not tied to one specific occupation, but possible to use in a broader range of occupations.

- Communication skills will be requisite for the increasing extent of team work carried out at the work place, as well as for the communication of information at all levels in the work organization.

- Work experience is of growing importance in view of the skills, attitudes and behavior that can only be acquired at the work place, as many large companies have developed particular attitudes and behavior, which it may be as important to acquire as to master the actual skills (Jallade, 1989, and Levin and Rumberger, 1989).

In addition to vocational training, many European countries have increased the opportunities available for apprenticeship, or alternance training. The alternation of periods of schooling and company based training is likely to be the normal way of entering working life. Educational institutions and companies will cooperate more closely to cater for the needs of the companies as well as the needs of the student. In West Germany, for example, where the apprenticeship system has a central position, a dual system of vocational training is provided to facilitate the entry of the young to working life. The system combines training in companies with instruction in the schools in a three-year training course. Almost two thirds of the school leaving group are taken up by this kind of training, and the majority of those entering the system, 85 to 95 per cent, obtain a certificate that testifies to their professional skills. The content of the training is determined by the Federal Institute of Vocational Training, employers and representatives of the unions, while the regulations are issued by the Federal Government (Jallade, 1988).

In the United Kingdom, the counterpart to the German dual system of vocational training is the Youth Training Scheme (YTS), which is the most large scale training program in progress in the United Kingdom. The aim is to provide everyone who is not in full-time schooling and who is under 18 with the opportunity to enter a training program. The program guidelines are established centrally, by the Manpower Services Commission (MSC), while the program is operated locally through boards of local employers, trade unionists and representatives from the local authorities.

In 1985, more than half of the participants were able to find full-time employment upon completion of the program.

5. Tertiary Education

Mass higher education was introduced during the 1970's, in most Western European countries, which was three decades later than in the United States. The borderline between "mass", as opposed to "elite" education is held to have been passed when 15 per cent of the age cohort concerned are enrolled in tertiary education (Trow, 1974). Only a few of the European countries had reached this percentage in 1965, while the majority of countries were above, or close to a 30 per cent enrollment in 1986 (See Table XI below.). However, the European figures are still low in comparison with Canada (55 per cent) and the United States with 59 per cent.

Table XI: Percentage of Age Group Enrolled in Tertiary Education

	1965	1986
Austria	9	28
Belgium	15	32
Denmark	14	29
Finland	11	35
France	18	30
Germany, Federal Republic of	9	30
Greece	10	24
Hungary	13	15
Ireland	12	22
Italy	11	25
Netherlands	17	32
Norway	11	28
Poland	18	17
Portugal	5	13
Romania	10	11*
Spain	6	32
Sweden	13	37
Switzerland	8	23
Turkey	4	10
United Kingdom	12	22
U.S.S.R.	11*	22*
Yugoslavia	13	19

Source: World Bank, 1989.
*=refers to an earlier year.

In earlier decades, the dominating problem was to expand facilities and provide places. During this phase, there was also a tendency to merge institutions that had earlier not enjoyed full status as institutions for higher education. One of the

most well known examples of this is the Swedish Higher Education Act of 1977, which suggested a "comprehensive university", an idea that was also put to use in the Federal Republic of Germany. By the end of the 1980's, however, quality and efficiency of the universities seem to become more and more important, and there is a strong demand for evaluations of the quality. The consolidation of financial management for higher education has in the 1980's taken place at the same time as legislative attempts at power sharing between academicians, students, non-professional staff, and representatives of the community, have been made in many countries. However, while in some countries, for example Sweden, Hungary, and the U.S.S.R., decentralization of the decision making has been the response to the demand for improved quality, the contrary process is occurring in Great Britain.

Table XII: Expenditures for Research and Development in OECD Countries, in 1985.

Country	Million USD	Per cent
USA	110 095	47.3
Germany, Fed.Rep. of	19 984	8.6
France	1 457	6.3
United Kingdom	14 232	6.1
Italy	7 015	3.0
Canada	5 580	2.4
Netherlands	3 437	1.5
Sweden	2 947	1.3
Switzerland	2 700	1.2
Belgium	1 795	0.8
Spain	1 553	0.7
Turkey	1 255	0.5
Austria	1 035	0.4
Norway	940	0.4
Yugoslavia	891	0.4
Finland	848	0.4
Denmark	785	0.3
Portugal	225	0.1
Ireland	203	0.1
Greece	202	0.1
Iceland	24	0.0
Other	42 564	18.2
OECD Total	232 879	100.0

Source: OECD, 1989c.

Table XIII: Expenditures for Research and Development by Sector. In per cent.

Country	Enterprise Sector	Private Non-Profit-Sector	Public Sector	University Sector
USA	71	3	12	14
Germany Fed.Rep. of	73	1	13	13
France	59	1	25	15
United Kingdom	64	3	20	13
Italy	57	0	24	19
Canada	53	1	23	23
Netherlands	56	2	19	23
Sweden	68	0	4	28
Switzerland	75	5	6	14
Belgium	72	4	5	19
Spain	58	0	25	17
Turkey	74	0	14	12
Austria	55	2	8	35
Norway	63	1	14	22
Yugoslavia	54	0	26	20
Finland	61	1	19	19
Denmark	55	1	20	24
Portugal	28	5	39	28
Ireland	52	1	28	19
Greece	25	0	53	22
Iceland	16	6	48	30
OECD Total	68	3	14	15

Source: OECD, 1989c.

Research and Development in Higher Education

Research is playing an important role for economic growth in many countries. From 1980-1985, the expenditures for research and development (R&D) increased with an average of 6 per cent in a majority of the OECD countries, at the same time as GNP increased with 2.6 per cent. During the latter part of the 1980's, the growth of the expenditures for R&D has continued, but at a lower rate. The largest share of the total expenditures for R&D in the OECD countries is covered by the United States, Japan, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, and the United Kingdom. In most of the countries, companies account for two thirds of the total R&D expenses. How much of the expenses are used within the universities varies between countries. France, the United Kingdom and Spain have chosen to allocate R&D

resources to research institutions which are usually administratively tied to different Ministries, while other countries, for example Sweden and Austria allocate relatively more resources to the University sector. The tendency of the 1980's has been that of a greater contribution of the industrial sector to the percentage of the expenditures for research carried out in the universities.

6. Cooperation and Exchange

Several programmes for cooperation and exchange have been initiated in the last decade, which all have consequences for European integration and the general progress of education in Europe. UNESCO undertake educational activities by its program divisions at the European Center for Higher Education (CEPES) in Bucharest, the International Bureau for Education (IBE) in Geneva, the International Institute for Educational Planning(IIEP) in Paris, and the Unesco Institute for Education (UIE) in Hamburg. The Unesco activities are in the form of conferences and meetings, training, publication and dissemination of studies, elaboration and application of normative instruments, and cooperation with intergovernmental organizations, such as the Council of Europe, the European Community, and cooperation with non-governmental organizations.

CEPES in Bucharest, which was established in 1972, has undertaken a number of actions to promote cooperation within higher education in Europe. For example, **CEPES** has been instrumental in establishing a convention on the mutual recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees of higher education in the Europe region, which facilitates substantially the mobility of students. By 1989, twenty-six countries had ratified the convention. **CEPES** is also an important documentation center, and compiles statistics and information in close collaboration with various national information bodies, and information and inventories are disseminated regularly. A cooperative inter-university network has also been established by **CEPES**, which was launched to promote in-service training of higher education staff and educational research workers.

Three programmes are in operation which are different both from Unesco's programmes which concern a certain theme (for example literacy and environmental education), and from programs aimed at preparing normative instruments. These are **CODIESEE**, the Program of Cooperation in Research and Development for Educational Innovation in South and South-East Europe, the series of All-European Conferences of Directors of Educational Research Institutions, and the Program of Joint Studies in Education. The objective of these three programs is to stimulate cooperation and exchange of information among national research institutions, and to enable them to participate more effectively in educational

innovation in their respective countries. The aim is to facilitate cooperation and assistance at all levels in the region, and to establish contacts between professionals in the region that transcends language barriers and socio-economic and political systems. The role of UNESCO in this context is to provide technical and financial assistance, and to give the impetus for action. Research themes and a collectively defined methodology are worked out by the participating institutions.

CODIESEE encompasses twenty-four research institutes in ten different countries. Specialists in other countries participate in specific activities, without being associated formally. The activities are coordinated at national and regional levels. The **CODIESEE** has different priority areas, where each area includes certain number of cooperative projects, with project teams set up. Technical assistance and financial support is provided to the participating institutions, and reports and papers on the research are circulated within the network. The priority areas of the **CODIESEE** network are:

- Primary education, with particular emphasis on promoting qualities for life-long learning.

- Linking education to the world of work, for example by school-industry cooperation, and technology education.

- The role of new information technology, and communication technology in education, focussing, for example, on national strategies for introducing computers in education, and the exchange of audio-visual materials.

Within the European Community, the European Community Action Scheme for Mobility of University Students (**ERASMUS**), the **COMETT** Programme, the **EUROTEC** Network, and The European Community Action Programme are large-scale cooperative programmes with considerable impacts at various levels of the structure and development of education, as well as in society at large.

The largest cooperative programme in the field of education is **ERASMUS**, which has been initiated jointly by the European Community countries. It is intended as an encouragement for universities in the various Member States to establish cooperation with universities in other countries, by programs for mobility of faculty and students and by joint development of curricula and intensive programmes. **ERASMUS** has the aim eventually to provide 10 per cent of all post-secondary students in Europe with the opportunity to study in another country in the Community.

Financial resources are available from the **ERASMUS** budget for developing and organizing exchange of university teaching

staff between countries. Priority is given to reciprocal exchange, and joint efforts at creating new curricula, which may also be in the form of mutual adaptation of existing curricula. For students, grants to cover the additional expenses connected with a period of study abroad are available on the condition that the student's home university recognizes the period of study abroad as a part of his or her degree or diploma.

There is a continuous expansion in the operation of the **ERASMUS** programme. In 1987/1988, the second year of operation for the **ERASMUS** programme, around 3000 students obtained grants, and almost 400 programmes for exchange and cooperation between universities were financially supported. In the following year, the programme was even more extensive:

- 1091 programmes of cooperation, 948 of which involved the mobility of students, and 214 an exchange of staff members. In the first year, 1987/1988, this section of **ERASMUS** received the largest share of the **ERASMUS** budget.

- Around 13.000 students spent up to a year at a foreign university.
- 1267 visit projects. Visits included, for example, the preparation of programmes for cooperation, and guest lectures.
- 23 projects for the promotion of cooperation between universities.
- The European Community student handbook and other publications.

ERASMUS will have a considerable impact on the general direction of "Europeanization" and internationalization different levels of Western European society. As regards higher education, the development of common degrees and diplomas will facilitate the process of integration, and thus have substantial structural implications, although there is a long way ahead until an integration is realized; There are considerable organizational problems to be solved, and the nine different official languages of the European Community account for another problem that has to be bridged. School systems where the majority of the students speak two languages, which tends to be the smaller countries; Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg and Denmark, tend to be in a better position for mobility between states and thus for participation in exchanges.

ERASMUS will also have a far-reaching impact on the outlook of individuals, which is an important dimension of the programme. With increasing opportunities for exchange between countries, students will learn languages, gain a greater cultural sensitivity and acquaint themselves with different life-styles, and this is undoubtedly a valuable asset in an ever more

integrated Europe.

In conjunction with the **ERASMUS** project, the British Commonwealth has raised the issue of a parallel scheme, which could encompass an exchange of students from outside Europe. It is suggested that the benefits of a programme for European integration could be extended to students of the British Commonwealth, where students who are already studying in a Community Member State in continental Europe, would be given a chance to study in Britain on the basis of the existing financial support scheme of **ERASMUS**, just like European students, and those students enrolled at British universities would conversely gain access to courses in other parts of Europe. At a time when internationalization is of increasing importance, a scheme parallel to **ERASMUS** which would include students from other parts of the world than Europe, is seen as a long-term vehicle for a possible North-South interchange (Commonwealth Conference Report, 1989).

The **COMETT** programme, Community Action Programme for education and training for technology, is directed to a set of objectives related to the need for education and training to be more responsive to changes within the field of technology, and to improve the opportunities for training at all levels; national, regional and local levels in cooperation with the authorities concerned, so that those areas in the European Community where the provision of training opportunities are still scarce could reach a better balance with the other regions. **COMETT** directs the cooperation between universities and private companies that is taking place in Western Europe towards a European perspective. Exchange of experience and training opportunities across countries, as well as the joint formation of the training courses, are encouraged by the programme. Five different "strands" of action are given financial support:

i) University-Enterprise Training Partnerships, UETPS, which entails universities and companies which work jointly in training partnership. The cooperation takes place at local, regional or national level with the view of meeting training needs for qualified manpower. Training and exchange of personnel, media-based education and continuing education are components of this type of cooperation. These partnerships may be related to one specific region or area, or to one specific sector or field.

ii) Transnational Exchanges, which enable people to move between universities and companies and also between countries. Support is given to university students or those who have recently graduated, and to university staff and personnel in companies. The majority of the support that had been given up to 1988, was directed to transnational

exchanges of students into companies.

iii) Continuing Education, which implies efforts to disseminate jointly developed training materials, which should be directed to staff and personnel. This strand also includes intensive courses which are devised to make the latest research findings known in companies and universities.

iv) Multimedia Training Systems, focuses on the potential of new technology to serve as tools for the improvement of instruction, in particular initiatives which improve the channels through which media-based instruction can be made available to a wider range of people. This strand is often seen as part of a general development for the opportunities for open learning in Europe. (Jallade, 1989)

A different network that has been established in response to the impact and significance of new information technology for vocational training is **EUROTEC**. It is intended to encourage the exchange of information on innovations, and a transfer of expertise between countries. A resolution of 1983 requires Member States to set up training facilities to enable those with inadequate qualifications to gain competence within the field of information technology, which may imply both unemployed or those with employment who need to update their skills so as to be less vulnerable to a restructuring of the industries. Women who plan to re-entry into working life are given particular attention in the resolution. The resolution also emphasizes the importance of a generally more favorable climate for the introduction of vocational training geared to information technology.

This network includes 135 projects in 12 different Member States, which all have distinct approaches in terms of duration (ranging from 40 to 800 hours a year), target groups (women, unemployed, those who already have employment etc), levels (basic, intermediate, or advanced), size of the group in the instruction, and they differ also as to what kind of technology they focus on (in Jallade, 1989). The shared objective of the different projects within the **EUROTEC** connects technological innovations and vocational training. Regular inter-program visits and round tables to engage trade union representatives and employers in the network are set up to achieve the objectives of development of the training projects, and to ensure the exchange of experience and expertise.

The European Community Action Program, finally, is directed particularly to vocational training of young people, in order to provide diversified vocational training for all school leaving young people up to, and above, the ages of 18 and 19.

One of the aims of the program is to establish a dialogue between the policy-makers and those directly involved in the implementation of the program, as well as to give technical assistance to the implementation process.

7. Adult Education

The idea of facilitating systematic learning in adult life has had enormous impact on the provision of education at large in many European countries. Knowledge and education has come to play a prominent part in the public debate, not least in view of the prospects of international competition, and increasing challenges to national industries, particularly from Japan and South East Asia. In response to this, there has been a rapid advance in training programmes, conducted either outside the work-place, or internally in the firm, and the recruitment of individuals to traditional programmes of general adult education has brought about a substantial growth in the recruitment of individuals to traditional general adult education. There is an increasing willingness on the part of the industrial enterprises and public sector authorities to assume responsibility for the financing of further education and training of their personnel.

In the context of changing structures and rapid technological development, life-long education, or learning throughout life, is necessary not only for a selected group, but for all (Faure et al., 1972). The concept of life-long education is concurrently used with concepts such as life-long learning and recurrent education. These concepts have different connotations; life-long education is usually tied to formal institutions, life-long learning can be achieved outside the public organizations, and has a more individual aspect, a way for an individual to change his situation, while recurrent education, a concept used by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), refers to a comprehensive educational strategy for all post-compulsory or post-basic education. The essential characteristics of recurrent education is the distribution of education over the total life-span of the individual on a recurrent basis, i.e, in alteration with other activities, principally with work, but also with leisure and retirement (CERI, 1973).

Life-long education emphasized by UNESCO, and recurrent education by OECD, were advocated at a time when some of the optimism about formal education as a means of achieving a fair and equitable society began to erode. In most countries in Europe, there was a gap between on the one hand expressed interest, and on the other hand lack of political action. The following reasons for the initiation of life-long or recurrent education are often mentioned: (1) the inadequacy of conventional

educational mechanisms for the financing of adult education in general, and student aid in particular; (2) the distrust of further rises in public expenditures on education; (3) high unemployment rates among young adults; (4) limited access to programmes of study offered in universities and other institutions of tertiary education; (5) insufficient legislation; particularly with respect to the rules regulating study leave and income maintenance; and (6) structural obstacles to policy coordination arising from diversification and diffusion of responsibility in the post-mandatory sector of education (Tuijnman, 1989). At the same time as alternation education, with the principal aim of improving the relationships between early education and the work-place is emphasized, the benefits of postponements have been seriously questioned in most European countries since the early 1980's. While policies of postponement of formal education to a later time in life have failed, however, the central idea of providing opportunities for adult learning has had considerable overall importance for the educational sector in Europe.

Functional Illiteracy

With the rapid scientific progress, an extensive body of knowledge and skills is necessary in order to cope in modern society. In conjunction with this, large groups of people in Europe have been found to be "functional illiterates". Most European countries consider the problem of illiteracy to be solved decades ago, but unlike what is normally labelled illiteracy, the functional illiterate may know the alphabet or figures. The new demands of modern society make their elementary knowledge insufficient for employment, however. In modern, automated construction industry functional illiterates may even constitute a danger to themselves and to the employers, and in France, for example, functional work oriented schemes set up in accordance with *Loi sur la Formation Permanente* have been initiated with particular attention to immigrant workers (Limage, 1986). The problem is not confined to immigrants, however. Surveys have shown that in some countries as much as 5 to 10 per cent of the population are facing difficulties due to insufficient literacy skills, but many countries are reluctant to admit the existence of the problem among nationals (UNESCO, 1989), and considerably more extensive work has been done to trace the problem among immigrants than among nationals.

The problem of functional illiteracy often tends to be considered marginal, and does not get enough attention. A substantial number of school leavers go through the formal school system without functional reading and writing skills, and efforts to combat the problem of functional illiteracy are often made once the problem has emerged, often ad hoc and in an uncoordinated way (Limage, 1986). Besides, those who need

literacy training the most are often not reached by such instruction. They are often not able to negotiate a leave for studies with their employers, and formalized enrolment procedures may prevent people from coming to the courses (Limage, 1986).

Part III. Educational Management

8. Educational Management at Central, Regional, and Local Levels

The form of educational governance influence the type of management structure. The structure of educational management found in a highly centralized country, for example, with educational policies formulated at a national level, will be clearly different from the management in a country where educational policies are decentralized. A centralized system normally has a range of administrators below the national level, who act as representatives of the central governing authority, and who are responsible for carrying out the nationally established policy. In such a system, the local educational authorities will be very much concerned with keeping up with the centrally decreed policies. Local initiative or local "participation", is only involved once the educational policies are set up and are ready to be implemented, and even then, the actual way of implementation has been established at a higher level. The pattern of control over the curricula also reflects the form of educational governance. If the curricula are set centrally for the whole country, a body of school inspectors are employed to guide teachers in implementing the curriculum, and to supervise the work of the teachers to see how well they adhere to the national curriculum. Decentralized systems, in contrast, depend for their work on locally constructed courses of study, and no centrally appointed inspectors are necessary to ensure the implementation of teaching plans.

Although the educational system in different countries may be very different, the same name of a managerial function may be found in several countries. The meaning and actual power of the function may differ considerably between countries, however. School inspectors may, for example, exist both in countries with relatively centralized educational management, and in countries with decentralized systems, but while in some countries they may serve to ensure the appropriate implementation of educational policies and hold authority to sanctions to apply sanctions to teachers who do not perform their expected function

satisfactorily, the school inspectors in other countries may primarily function as advisers to teachers about pedagogical practices.

The role of the principal also differ between countries, and between the various levels of education. The management functions of principals may vary from senior teacher, to that of a manager, with responsibilities for curriculum and finance, selection and promotion, and assessment of teachers.

Most schools systems in Europe operate under the direction of a central ministry or department of education, which implements nationwide policies through a centrally coordinated management. In the Federal Republic of Germany, however, the highest level of educational management is found in the provincial state capital, rather than in the national capital. The administrators at the local level perform a similar managerial function in many European countries. The differences in function depend on the degree of autonomy that these administrators have, whether the structure of management is tightly coordinated at a central level, and whether the curriculum has been shaped with any degree of influence from the local level.

For European universities, the basic power relationships used to be that between the guild of academies and its chairman, the rector, or the vice-chancellor, on the one hand, and the relevant church authorities or governmental ministries on the other hand. Until recently, the rector was elected by the members of the guild in several Western European countries. Currently, however, there is a tendency towards a wider and more politicized electorate. In some of the Eastern European countries, where university rectors were formerly nominated politically, the trend is now that the universities elect their own leaders and to a greater degree run their own affairs. Since 1968, increasingly more power and influence has been delegated to the non-professional staff, and to students; and externally, the influence of politicians, civil servants, organized economic interest groups, institutional and regional governing boards have likewise increased.

Decentralization and Deconcentration

Traditionally centralized systems frequently perceive a need for a more flexible response of the educational structure to the needs of the people concerned by the administration, reforms and curricula, and a better utilization of the resources available at the local levels. Decentralization is often advocated as a solution to the ineffectiveness of a rigid, centralized educational system. It implies the devolution of power for decision-making to the level of local authorities, but in order

for that to succeed, an adequate upgrading of local-level resources (staff, infrastructure) must be made (Chinapah, Löfstedt, and Weiler, 1989). If these requirements are not met, attempts at decentralization may simply be a question of delegating functions to intermediate or local authorities from above. The difference may be looked at as a difference between "decentralization" and "deconcentration" (UNESCO, 1985), where "deconcentration" implies that the power still rests with central authorities, while the administrators and functionaries at local levels are in fact merely executing orders decreed from the higher levels.

9. Types of Structure of Management Systems

In the U.S.S.R., the structure of education is highly coordinated. The schools are headed by directors, who are assisted by administrative staff. The administrators ensure the implementation of centrally worked out directives. The school director is under supervision by the ministry of education, although he or she is entitled to make some slight alteration as to the program of study, which he or she must be prepared to justify in the event of inspection by the ministry.

In 1988, however, a concrete step was taken to reduce the number of bodies in the management structure. Three government departments responsible for public education were merged into a single State Committee for Public Education of the U.S.S.R. The new Committee will be the body responsible for the elaboration of strategies for educational development, manpower training and long-term planning, for the system of manpower retraining, and the utilization of research capacities at the colleges and universities. This de-construction of the barriers that had up until this time separated the management of secondary, vocational and higher education also reflect the new view of education that has been put forth in the general context of educational reform in the U.S.S.R.; that of an uninterrupted and integrated process within the school, which also requires a reformed infrastructure of educational management. The democratization of the management of the educational institutions, and involving students in issues concerning college management is therefore high on the agenda of the current restructuring of the educational system.

In the Federal Republic of Germany, the state (Länder) have the responsibility for the administration of the schools, and authority is delegated from the state level to the counties, and in the cases of certain large cities, to the city states. The educational management structure is characterized by a combination of federalism on the national level and centralization on the level of the states (Länder) that together form the Federal Republic (Baumert, Köhler, Leschinsky, Naumann,

Roeder, and Trommer, 1989). The responsibilities and competencies are located at different levels for the various educational stages, however;

For general primary education and secondary education, the responsibilities for management are located centrally in the different Länder Ministries of Education. Coordination of state policies is assured by the Permanent Ministers of Culture, and the most essential steering mechanism is standardization of the curricula, and the centrally set standards for graduation. As to vocational education, the Federal Government and the State Government share responsibilities with the Chambers of the Employers, the Trade Unions, and the employing firm. The degree of influence on the part of private enterprise is quite substantial in the system of dual vocational education, which we discuss above. The Chambers of Commerce and the schools both conduct examinations, which works as a system of checks and balance (Baumert, Köhler, Leschinsky, Naumann, Roeder, and Trommer, 1989). For higher education, the responsibilities are localized at the level of the Länder, who at present also contribute with some 95 per cent of all the resources for higher education and research. The Federal Government has some possibilities to cooperate in funding programs, research funding, student loan schemes, and certain legislation. The independent role of the individual universities is very important, and standards and policies are coordinated and informally evaluated by the Science Council. As to the programmes offered by firms to their employees, and educational activities offered by various organizations, initiative and responsibility often rest with the private or semi-private enterprises. Federal and state responsibilities are mostly indirect in this field, whereas in overall policy measures to reduce unemployment by means of further education the state responsibilities are more pronounced. Municipalities also play an important role for the management and running of further education in the form of people's high schools, and churches and unions also run programmes of further education.

In the past two decades, there has been a slight shift away from the divergence that is a result of the far-reaching autonomy of the different states in the Federal Republic. Curricula are to an increasing degree standardized in terms of the subjects to be taught at the various levels of education, and as to the number of hours of education per week and school year. A frame-like specification of the courses has also been worked out. These kinds of standardization are new to the tradition of education within the country, and the standardization of input has been extended to more regulation of details at the local levels, for example grouping strategies aimed at helping students with special needs (Baumert, Köhler, Leschinsky, Naumann, Roeder, and Trommer, 1989).

In England and Wales, which have a very decentralized system of education, the head teacher is the chief of administration at the school, and there is considerable variation between the program of instruction between different schools, which is a result of the autonomy of the head teacher. Most important decisions are taken at the school by the professional teachers and the head teacher, or by the local educational authorities. In conjunction with the teachers, the head teacher exercises strong control over the structure of the school, and what goes on in the class room. The head teacher has advisory assistance from a board of governors in the case of secondary schools, and a board of managers in the case of elementary schools.

Part IV. Educational Planning

10. From Manpower Planning to a Supply Planning Approach

The *manpower planning approach* of the 1960's, was developed in response to the shortage of adequately trained manpower. This approach was clearly dominant in educational planning in the early and mid-1960's. The objective of this kind of planning approach is to maintain an equilibrium on the labor market, at the same time as output is increased. The purpose is to ensure that an adequate supply of manpower will be available when requirements arise on the labor market. If the planning is successful, shortages and surpluses can be avoided. Planning is considered necessary, as market mechanisms are not trusted to secure the equilibrium of the labor market, and individual choices are not seen to ensure that labor market needs are met.

In Western Europe, this approach has, for different reasons, been reconsidered. In an environment where substantial technological progress coincides with unstable economic growth, the feasibility of the manpower forecasts that serves as a basis for manpower planning, have been questioned. Consequently, the manpower planning approach of the 1960's has in the 1980's been supplanted by a *supply planning approach*, which has been adopted by educational planners primarily with a view to combatting unemployment among young people. The supply planning approach does not focus exclusively on the manpower requirements as dictated by the economy, but rather on the social needs of unemployed individuals.

The concern of the supply planning approach is to facilitate entry into working life by looking at the social and educational needs that the individual might have, and to try to enhance his or her chances of being employed. The rationale of the approach is the belief that skilled unemployed constitute potentially available human resources, which is preferable to unskilled unemployed. The shift from manpower planning has also been accounted for by an increasing concern for the qualitative aspects of education. Planning is considered not primarily to be constituted by quantitative, technical projections, but also an effort to coordinate training with new requirements and a changing organization at the work-place.

11. Planning for Education and Work

In the planning of education in Europe, it is increasingly important to consider the implications of the rapid changes on the labor market which has been brought about by the Information Technology (IT) revolution, as it is certain to have important implications for planning. In this environment of rapid technological progress, there may be a need for educational planning to be more pragmatic and more operational, "...less standardized and more strategic...closer to the action" (Hallak, 1989).

There will be a continued rise in the demand for highly educated workers in the industrialized world, and an overall high level of education will be required, as the general shift of weight in the economy from the agricultural and industrial sectors to a greater emphasis on services and technologically sophisticated production calls for a greater degree of specialization. A greater degree of participation of the workers in decision-making at the work place, will also be more common, and the subsequent demands for more independence and creativity on the part of the workers, have important implication for the planning of education. The need for workers to be able to solve problems that arise, work in teams, and assume greater responsibility for product quality and the production process, as well as to communicate by means of and handle computerized information-processing may call for a "new set of competencies" (Levin and Rumberger, 1989, p.220), which will have to be founded in schools. To orient students towards a new set of competencies, will have implications not only for *what* knowledge and competence are actually conveyed in the schools, but also for *how* things are taught. There will, as Levin and Rumberger point out, be a need for a move away from root-memorization, a correct-answer approach, and the school and teacher directed activity.

Although the *types* of skills required for the changing work place are likely to be different, with an increasing emphasis on communication and reasoning skills, there is simultaneously a contrary tendency related to the technological development. The very refined technological innovations can be used to lower the educational requirements for various jobs, by replacing the human capacity in the work process by computer-based technology. Thus, while the educational requirements for some categories of jobs will continue to be high, or be raised, other areas will experience lowered skill requirements. The increasing use of new technology is not inevitably linked to an educational upgrading of jobs, the upgrading depends on whether the technologies are aiding or substituting human skills (Levin and Rumberger, 1989).

In planning for the vocational part of secondary education the initiation of improvements of the quality is generally formulated in discussions between educational authorities and representatives of the economic sector. The scope of the influence of these discussion bodies vary between countries, however. As to the apprenticeship system in the Federal Republic of Germany, which we have discussed above, the BIBB (*Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung*) defines the content and objectives, but any modification of the content has to be worked out jointly with representatives of the unions and the employers. In accordance with the greater weight given to school based education in France, unions and employers have comparatively less influence in decisions on the content and objectives of the training programs, while the influence of the central decision making body, i.e. the Ministry of Education is stronger, in comparison.

In the United Kingdom, with a relatively more decentralized system, the unified standard of the variety of technical and vocational courses is ensured by a set of bodies that are legally and financially independent from the Ministry of Education. Any decisions taken within these supervising and validating bodies are worked out in cooperation with employers and training institutions. This entails a considerable degree of involvement in decisions of the grass-root level, which makes the system flexible and adaptable to changing demands. The system does, however, run the risk of a lack of coordination between courses and confusion as to what alternative for training would be the most appropriate for a certain individual, and for this reason a National Council of Vocational Qualification has been set up to coordinate the operations of the different bodies.

The problem of over-education

The surplus of highly educated people, and the subsequent necessity for college and university graduates to enter jobs with no requirements for university education is referred to as over-education. It stems from an imbalance in growth between the supply of highly educated people and the supply of jobs with the corresponding high requirements for educated workers. In economic terms, over-education may be seen as a problem of the allotment of financial resources to an educational system that produces an excess of graduates which the labor-market is unable to absorb. The individual and social costs of over-education can also be considerable, however. Individuals who feel that their jobs do not correspond to their level of education, may experience dissatisfaction, and may also be less motivated than would be the case in jobs that better answer to their educational background, which, in turn, could have a negative effect on their productivity, and in turn on their earnings (Levin and Rumberger, 1989).

In the Federal Republic of Germany the expansion of education has since the mid 1970's produced a continuous rise in the number of qualified students who entered the labor market, at the same time as the labor market has been affected by economic recession. This surplus of qualified manpower has brought about a vertical substitution process at the work place, in which those who are without formal qualifications bear the highest risks (Weishaup, von Recum, Haug, 1989). A continued rise in the general qualification level is expected, and thus other criteria besides educational qualifications will be decisive for the employers when assigning positions. The selection function can thus be expected to shift from the educational system to the enterprises and the labor market, which may reinforce the inequality of opportunity that the educational system for a long time has strived to minimize (Weishaup, von Recum, Haug, 1989). The emerging devaluation of educational credentials and the issue of selection will have to be addressed by educational planners and policy makers, without resorting to regulated selection within the educational system in response to labor market needs. For, as we discuss above, this type of regulated, demand-oriented approach to the problem of over-education would be increasingly difficult in a context of unstable economic development, and a strong social demand for education, as well as powerful individual demand for freedom of choice of educational route.

An imbalance of the manpower needs of the economy and the educational qualifications of the school leavers has also been experienced in the U.S.S.R., where a relative overproduction of diploma-holders in recent years has created an economic and

social problem (Skorov, 1988). The parallel is a shortage of manpower in certain areas of the economy, and the situation has in some cases resulted in considerably higher pay for factory workers than for professional occupations. By the mid-1980's, one in every five college graduates, or a total of 7 million diploma holders, became factory-workers, car-drivers, or sales-persons (Skorov, 1988).

12. The Role of Educational Evaluation and Social Science Research

The role of evaluation and social science research for educational planning differ among countries. For evaluation, the general movement towards decentralization of the educational system that is taking place in many European countries has important consequences. The shift away from centrally determined regulation of aims and goals to decentralization of such aspects of education as the formation of the curriculum, and of school administration means that schools and teachers to a larger degree are entrusted to realize the objectives of the educational policies by such means as they find appropriate, as the aim is to encourage change and development "from below".

For such divergent development to be possible at the same time as inequality between the different schools is avoided, and to be able to determine whether pupils develop in accordance with set educational objectives, a functioning system of measurement, evaluation and monitoring is essential. As it is equally important to see whether the objectives and contents of education fit the needs and interests of the pupils, there is ideally a two-way flow of feed-back and information between the input of aims and contents, and the output of students' achievements, which we illustrate in figure II below.

It is not only the final output of the educational process that is of importance, however, if we take output to mean pupils' achievements, we need also to consider the process as such, and decentralization, there is a greater need for the two-way flow of feed-back between input and output. At present, it is only in the Anglo-Saxon educational system and those related to it that performance evaluation is used extensively in a context of general decentralization. Sweden, France, and Hungary use (or plan to use) formal output evaluation as a part of a strategy to improve the responsiveness of a more centralized educational system. Most countries in Europe continue to rely heavily on input regulation of the contents of curricula, structural differentiation etc.

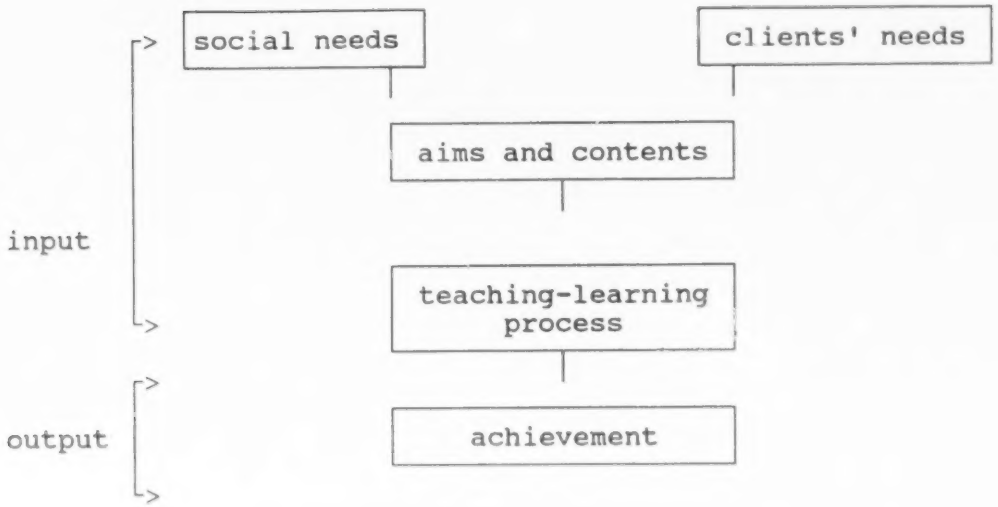

Figure 2: Feedback Lines in the Educational Process
Source: Adapted from Báthory, 1989

In the case of Sweden and France, where there is a tradition of a central management of the school system, a widening range of participants is involved in the evaluation process. Educational institutions, and local and regional authorities are to an increasing extent responsible for changes of quality, and accountable for the progress of the change for evaluations. This means, for example, that the central inspectors in France will no longer have the same role in evaluating secondary teachers (Laderriere, 1989). In Norway and Belgium, there is a similar tendency to involve more participants in evaluations, not least those local authorities with responsibility for the environment where the young grow up. In France, the extension of the evaluation process of various levels of the educational organization also implies that an extended repertoire of methods are engaged, and reports are put together at the ministerial level on the current state of affairs in education, which draw on evaluative information supplied by all actors involved. The idea is to benefit from different sources of information, as well as different methodologies, and thus synthesizing of both soft and hard data.

As evaluation at the level of the educational institutions, and school self-evaluation is gaining importance in the process of decentralization and relative autonomy vis-à-vis central decrees, there is an increasing need for the schools to state

their goals more directly, as well as to state their plans for realization of the goals (Laderriere, 1989). In Anglo-Saxon countries, this has been done in publications on the performance of different schools, and the publication of similar school plans are now being advocated for example in France. The kind of information published on schools in Anglo-Saxon countries tend to have a market-oriented approach, however, in that the evaluation of the school is partly done by the market mechanisms. The presentation of high pupils' achievements becomes a determinant of the ability of the school to attract clients, and quality consequently also serves competitive and commercial purposes. With this approach, primacy tends to be given to the final product - the pupils' school achievements - and the quality and progress of a school, processual dimensions, and the degree and quality of pupil interaction tend to be overlooked.

In those countries that by tradition have a very strong centralized administration, increasing decentralization has not entailed a greater reliance on market mechanisms to regulate and evaluate the quality of education, although evaluations of schools are published. In France, for example, the information on schools which is circulated in certain media is not intended as encouragement for competition between schools on the basis of the results of pupils' achievements. The information is rather compiled with the intention of presenting the outcomes of evaluation studies, which is considered to be of value for other schools in their efforts at better performance. A catalogue of methods tested and in use in certain areas has been put together for the use in schools, local and regional authorities. The idea is that different institutions and levels should use the same indicators, so that a set of national educational indicators may evolve (Laderriere, 1989).

Many countries have voiced the need for more research on educational evaluation, and for joint activities in the field. The development of common methodologies is central to joint undertakings, but it is not without problems. There is a general awareness among most Western European countries about the difficulties in undertaking evaluation, but it is nevertheless usually considered necessary to develop reliable educational indicators. Several countries have experienced problems of inaccurate use of concepts, and the dissatisfaction with evaluations due to the time factor, since the social impact of education only shows after some time OECD, 1984). Problems of funding and communication of results have also been difficult to bridge. It has been argued that the development of a professional network, in contrast to administrative or political networks would be able to concentrate on specific issues that are of interest to all countries involved, and the role of UNESCO or UNESCO-related institutes in Europe may be vital in promoting the use of common instruments and indicators. Joint comparative evaluation has not least been seen as particularly pertinent for

higher education, as it is also a way to improve the basis for extended student exchange programs between the Eastern and Western European countries.

When it comes to the relationship between social science research and educational planning, different countries in Europe have different traditions. The Scandinavian countries have a tradition in which social science research is utilized for planning endeavors. Sweden has, for example, been the home of systematic application of social science knowledge, in which national authorities have been the most important movers. National Commissions have utilized research from a range of disciplines in preparing educational plans for the national level. Research is involved in the planning process not only at a national level, but also at district and local levels. In the 1990's, data from national evaluations will be used at all levels of planning (Husén and Kogan, 1984).

In the United Kingdom, there are many examples of close relationships between educational research and educational planning at the national level. There are not only examples of how research results have been used to change administration, but also of how classroom studies have been important for changes in teaching methods. At the same time, there are striking examples of how social science research has come to play a subordinate role in planning activities, and the role of critical research appears to have diminished in the 1980's.

The Federal Republic of Germany has used experts in educational research in Educational Commissions (*Bildungsrat*). For limited periods, there have been institutionalized contacts between researchers and planners, or policy-makers. However, during the 1980's, educational research has had considerable problems in influencing planning.

In France, the direct influence of scientific research on educational planning is relatively weak, while the indirect influences might be somewhat more substantial. Very few examples can be given where decisions in educational policy-making at national, provincial, or local level, are the results of scientific research. Researchers in the social sciences do not feel that their contribution is utilized in the planning process.

In the Mediterranean countries, educational planning is only to a limited extent directly based on social science research, while in educational planning in the Eastern European countries, research-based planning is increasingly advocated. Evaluations are gradually gaining importance, and there has been a general desire to replace the manpower planning approach by a supply planning approach.

V. Future Prospects for Educational Management and Planning

At the same time as the European region will undergo considerable transition during the 1990's, the educational systems will change dramatically. While the traditional role of the school was to foster national identity, education in Europe in the 1990's will emphasize the importance of strengthening cooperation and convergence, while preserving rich diversity in the region. In the Western European context, the Commission of the European Community have a medium-term plan, where the main objectives are:

- "to clarify proposed reforms of one education system by drawing on the experience of other countries;
- to promote the shared democratic values of the Member States and increase understanding of cultural diversity; this involves the introduction of an intercultural dimension into the education and training of citizens;
- to develop a "Europe of quality" by encouraging skills, creativity and dynamism. There is also a need to establish a "Europe of mutual support" by promoting equal opportunities and the right of all citizens to have access to education throughout life" (Eurydice Info, 1989).

In view of the guidelines for cooperation, the Ministers od Education within the European Community have set up five objectives for cooperation in the next five years, which are:

- "a multicultural Europe: development of the European dimension in teaching; promotion of foreign language teaching; taking account of the variety of cultural approaches in education and training systems.
- a mobile Europe: development of systems for recognition of diplomas and for the equivalence of qualifications; support for youth exchanges and for exchanges of teachers, pupils, students and administrators; introduction of procedures providing teachers with the opportunity to teach temporarily in other Member States.

- a Europe of training for all: measures to combat failure at school; reduction of regional disparities, appropriate training for disadvantaged children, equal access to high-quality education.

- a Europe of skills: improvement in the quality of basic education, adaption of the training for young people to economic, technological, social and cultural developments; development of all the educational sectors, in particular technical, vocational and higher education; adaption of content and methods to technological change; improvement in initial and in-service training of education staff.

- a Europe open to the world: strengthening of links with other States; cooperation with international organizations; new forms of mutual support with developing countries,..." (Eurydice Info, 1989).

The role of the National State will no longer be the same in future Europe, as the Sates will gradually move away from being the operator to being the compensator, and the upholder of social justice. Multinational firms and organizations already play an important role in setting standards for recruitment, selection and promotion. In the future, certification or recognition of achievement will be handled by international bodies, and the National States will no longer have monopoly in this respect (Laurié, 1989).

The changing role of the State is also witnessed in the tendency towards decentralization of power within the educational structure. In the future, adaptation of educational programmes and the formation of structures will increasingly be decided upon at the local and intermediate levels, while a parallel development is the tendency to centralize decisions about standards, and the assessment of results.

Formerly, the organization and management of public education was based on a model of the factory, developed as an outgrowth of the scientific management movement of the early 20th century. The theory behind the model was that if there was a science of industrial production, there was also a science of education, and that the two could be organized in the same manner. The teacher would be the worker manning the production line. The student would be the product. The principal would be the foreman, and the superintendent the director. New modes of organizations of the work-place will require independence and self-motivation of the workers, however, and decentralization and the subsequent independence on the part of local units and individuals will entail changing roles for all levels in the educational organization. The role of the teacher would be different in such a situation, as would the role of educational

planners.

A profound change in the social environment in which learning takes place, will certainly be demanded in response to this development. Creating an environment which incites self-motivation and independence will be fundamental, and rather than considering how to prepare young people for the future, planners might have to think about preparing for the future with the help of young people, in a constructive cooperative environment.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS:

BIBB	Bundesistitut für Berufsbildung
CEPES	Center for Higher Education
CMEA	Council for Mutual Economic Assistance
CODIESEE	Cooperation in Research and Development for Educational Innovation in South and South East Europe
COMETT	Community Action Programme for Education and Training for Technology
EFTA	European Free Trade Association
ERASMUS	European Community Action Scheme for Mobility of University Students
ESPRIT	European Strategic Programme of Research in Information Technology
EUREKA	European Research Coordination Agency
FRG	Federal Republic of Germany
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
IBE	International Bureau of Education
IIEP	International Institute of Educational Planning.
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IT	Information Technology

MBSE	Massnahmen zur Berufsvorbereitung und Socialen Eingliederung
MSC	Manpower Services Commission
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PPP	Purchasing Power Parities
UIE	Unesco Institute for Education
UETPS	University-Enterprise Training Partnerships
YTS	Youth Training Scheme